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TEACHING OF GRAMMAR IN THE CONTEXT OF EFL/ESL

Syed Ahjaz Hussain Gilani

ABSTRACT

Many people favour the teaching of grammar in the context of EFL/ESL, but some teachers maintain that, no prior knowledge of grammar is required of the person learning another language. The learning of a foreign language in a formal environment is basically a conscious attempt to acquire a set of complex linguistic and cognitive skills (Iqbal 1991).

The present study in this context considers that grammar of a language is a skill that enables us to use the rules of a language to make our communication acceptable and logical. After an analysis of the main grammatical models, this paper highlights the vital role, that a grammar of language can play very effectively in the process of teaching English as FL/SL. This investigation, therefore, asserts the effectiveness of grammar in the complex world of EFL/ESL. Another aim of this paper is to review different methodological approaches and establish their relevance in EFL/ESL context.

INTRODUCTION

Since the second World War, when the need to study other languages arose in the USA, there has been a lot of controversy as to the teaching of grammar in the context of EFL/ESL . The new

trends gave birth to new approaches in the teaching and learning of languages. It is under the influence of these trends that, there has been a lot of discussion and debate among scholars around the world about the teaching of other languages during the last two decades. We, therefore, find at the moment, different opinions, trends and linguistic approaches about the nature and the role of grammar in the teaching of English as a foreign or second language and a range of methodological proposals for the teaching of grammar.

> "To many people - former students in our schools - learning another language is essentially a question of grammar. Some teachers on the other hand, maintain that we can speak and write our native language with ease and assurance 'without knowing any grammar', and that a knowledge of grammar should therefore not be required of the person learning another language. Yet others maintain that our students cannot use their native language properly, in speech and writing, because they were never taught grammar." (Rivers, 1981. P. 63).

As to the role of grammar and its nature in the present context, it seems appropriate to make a brief survey of different theories expounded in this regard.

a) Traditional Latin-influenced models of grammar

Until the 1920s, most models of English were based on Latin, the grammar of which was itself based on Greek, since both the languages were structurally very similar. This model was unsuited to modern English, which happens to be an uninflected language.

Although traditional grammar has a solid theoretical basis, the discovery of the rules of syntax and usage was

based on intuition of those who formulated it. It could not, unfortunately stand the test of time for ignoring the fact that language keeps changing.

b) Structuralism

Since the development of frustration as to the adequacy of traditional grammar in the explanation of modern concepts of English language, linguists started a search for a new theory to construct a sounder grammar of English. A structural view of language, thus developed in the USA. Structuralism has one of its clearest statements in Leonard Bloom field's 'Language' published in 1933. This model of grammar is based on the approach that the development of any discipline is influenced by the cultural and political setting in which it evolves. It asserted that each language was unique and must be described in terms of its own individual patterning. Meaning based study of language in the traditional grammar was discarded and the new approach sought to explain the working of language in terms of the functions of its components and their relationship to each other. "Structural lists developed a scientific view of studying a language but they undervalued the creativity of speakers and ignored the meanings people attach to, or feel for language." (Wallwork 1969)

c) Trasformational Generative Grammar

In 1957 Noam Chomsky, an American, published 'Syntactic Structures' a statement of the principles of transformational generative grammar (T.G). This grammar has had a profound effect on the study of all languages, including English. T.G. was a reaction against Structuralism and the first model to acknowledge formally the significance of deep structure. (Todd, 1987, P. 98). It is based on the theory of transformation. Chomsky sees language as

consisting of the speaker, or hearer's inner knowledge of his language (competence) and his actual use of language in concrete situations (performance). T.G. grammarians set themselves the task of creating an explicit model of what an ideal speaker of the language intuitively knows.

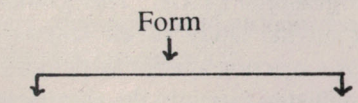
A generative grammar seeks to develop a set of rules which will by their operation explain how grammatically acceptable stretches of languages are produced, or can in future be produced, and which will enable an evaluation to be made to determine whether a stretch of language which has been produced does fit into the grammar of language. The ultimate aim of T.G. is the understanding of the universal commons to all languages, and through this, an understanding of the human mind.

d) Scale and Category

This model of grammar is also referred to as "Systemic Grammar" and it evolved mainly due to the work of British linguist, Michael Halliday. It attempts to describe language, whether written or spoken in terms of three primary levels:

substance ----------> Form ----------> situation

Substance relates to sounds for the spoken medium and to marks on the papers for written. Form is sub-divided into two levels.



(Tood, 1987 P. 98)

Lexis deals with the study of Words, their shape and ability to collocate with others. Grammar deals with the elements of structure and with the relationships of elements. Situation takes into

account such extra linguistic phenomena as gesture, non-linguistic noises, number of participants, time and place of occurrence.

In its earliest draft (1961), scale and category dealt only with surface structure, although later modified models were aware of both surface and deep levels of language. This model of English is based on the existence of choice within language.

In this model four units of phonology were described for English, the phoneme, the syllable, the foot and tone. The five grammatical units were morpheme, word, phrase, clause and sentence and these were ranked from the smallest, 'morpheme' to the largest (subject, predicate, object, complement, adjunct) and when the system which accounted for their form and their possible occurrence. This model was an advance on sturcturalism in that, it tried to take into account the facts that language varies with situation and that choice is available at all levels of the language, and the creative ability of native speakers has also been recognized in later models. Its main weakness was that it suggested that all sections of a language could be explained in terms of superficial binary contrasts.

An account of some of the main grammatical models by eminent scholars, however, gives us the idea that any type of studies in the domain of grammar concerns the teaching and learning of languages. Any of such approaches may have strengths as well as weaknesses, but it is a fact that modren grammers do evolve a scientific approach in the treatment of languages. A scientific grammar attempts to provide a logical and self-consistent account of how language works and never adopts of prescriptive role. In case of first language, where a learner learns a grammar of the language intuitively, the treatment of grammatical study may be different. But in case of FL/SL situations, where language is accepted as a rule governed behaviour, study of grammar cannot be ignored. However, the answer to an obvious question, which model is best suited to a study of contemporary English as FL/SL can only be

answered with reference to the purpose of teaching. If a model is needed for teaching English to literate adults, then there is much to be said for a latinate model; if we want a model based on a language which has actually occurred and which will be used for everyday interaction, then structuralism is still unequal and so on.

A language seen as an abstraction based on the linguistic behaviour of people, changes as people and circumstances change. We, therefore, have no totally adequate model of any language in the world and a choice of model will be conditioned by our needs.

The language is an activity which occurs as a result of human interaction. Learning a FL/SL means acquiring ability for the production of correct utterances in this interaction. The primary aim of teaching grammar is, of course, to increase knowledge and understanding of the knowledge and function of language. It, therefore, becomes a tool of acquiring the ability to produce grammatically correct utterances in the language. We, however, choose to describe that ability, whether as a matter of habit or skill as knowledge of formation of rules. Therefore, teaching of grammar to students of FL/SL seems a genuine contribution in the process of learning. Professor Fowler, in this regard, is of the view that:

> "It is terribly important to recognize the varieties in English, and children should be aware of those varieties. But I do think that a loss of grammar means that children are less able to theories about a language. I do want to be able to think formally about language. We do need what the philosophers call a meta-language, a language to talk about language in a technical way".
>
> (Ed Guardian)

It also seems relevant hare to mentioned that English grammar for foreign students needs to be designed on the basis of its use and the aims in particular national or political situations. The

approach, here will obviously differ from the one for native speakers, but both either implicitly or explicitly set up certain norms and standards to which good speech or writing is expected to conform. We can, therefore, agree with Todd (1987):

> "A grammar of a language is an attempt to describe systematically what a native speaker intuitively knows. It is a listing of the rules of a language so that we may speak and write it with clarity and precision and hear and read it with understanding."

This belief of a learned linguist in first language situation favours indirectly the teaching of grammar to students of EFL/ESL who do not inherit it intuitively and who need descriptions of the language to form certain behaviour and structure for healthy, correct and effective communication in the target language for the accomplishment of aspired ends. Agreeing with Anita Brooker, who believes that:

> "Grammar is something which should not be 'abstract' and divorced from text - but taught by attention to the best writing in the language. Grammar should be 'smuggled in' as part of process 're-acquaintance with the masterpieces of the language. You can only get an ear for language by reading language and by reading the right language."

I would say that if painting cannot be discussed without being able to use the names of colour, why not then, grammar for students of EFL/ESL to need it more deservedly, obviously, grammar not as an end itself, but as a useful aid in helping them to achieve the partial mastery of the language.

After having agreed to the teaching of grammar to EFL/ESL students, it becomes a point of relevance here to explore the best possible ways of how to teach it. One of the main controversies concerning the teaching of grammar is whether or not grammar can

be taught. For some, teaching grammar is the formal explanation of grammatical rules. For others, it is synonymous with the practice of common grammatical patterns. For still others, the teaching of grammar means providing students with opportunities to use English in a variety of realistic situation in order to learn to communicate effectively. These controversies have caused the formation of different methodological approaches for teaching of grammar. A review of these strategies is made here to see their relevance and effectiveness for providing students with a knowledge of grammatical rules as a means towards helping them gain competence and confidence in the language.

a) The grammatical explanation method

This method according to Allan (1974) involves a systematic attempt to provide students with a conscious knowledge of the rules. It is an old method and earlier in this century, it was used to help students read and appreciate foreign language literature. It was hoped that the study of the grammar of the target language would also help students develop efficiency in their native language. This method, however, could not prove successful for the teaching of English as a foreign or second language in the complex modern world.

b) The Situational method

The aim of situational teaching according to Allen (1974), is to ensure that all times the language being taught is used meaningfully in close association with the people, objects and actions to which it refers. It aims at developing mastery in grammatical rules inductively without needing to be conscious of them in the form of overtly expressed grammatical generalizations. The method found a lot of validity in the teaching of English as a FL/SL especially for communicative purposes.

c) The audio-lingual method

The method was developed in the United States during World War Two. At that time there was a need for people to learn foreign language for military purposes. The approach is based on the principle that learning a foreign language consists not in learning about the language but in developing a new set of habits. These habits are seen as the behavioural correlates of syntactic and phonological patterns. The aim is to teach grammar, defined as the particular system of devices which a language uses to signal one of its various layers (structural) meaning.

d) Direct Method

This method is old enough and the application of its principles has been in use for the teaching of English to foreign students for many years. It is based on the principle that meaning is to be connected directly with the target language, without going through the process of translating into the student's native language. It also proved its validity like situational method in developing skills to use the target language for communicative purposes.

We need to further analyze the applicability of these teaching methods in the light of a central issue in the area of grammar, whether the focus of teaching should be on form or function. A logical insight into the matter indicates that learners of a foreign language do need equal competence as to the use of both form and functions in the target language. Therefore, teaching of grammar needs to be equally concentrated on form and function in case of students of English as foreign or second language. Teaching grammar, then with regard to these aspects indicates that none of the methods discussed for teaching of grammar is complete in itself, and that most of teaching situations call for a combination of all the approaches in these methods according to the nature of the learning tasks, the type of students involved and their needs.

CONCLUSION

In the foregoing pages I have attempted to explore different theories in the area of teaching English as a foreign or second language. It has been noticed very clearly that, with regard to the teaching of grammar to students of EFL/ESL, all the approaches have strengths and weaknesses. Each of them seems to have emerged as a reaction against the perceived weaknesses of the prevailing traditions. We should, therefore, be prepared to study linguistic grammars of all types, and to select from them whatever seems to contribute towards achieving competence in English for communicative and other aspired ends. And the different methodological approaches discussed above may be utilized liberally to make effective the process of learning and teaching among students of English as a foreign or second language according to situational needs and other relevant consideration.

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TEACHING PRONUNCIATION SKILLS

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ABSTRACT

The importance and significance of pronunciation in language teaching cannot be denied. However, in Pakistani class-rooms, it is treated as an "Optional extra". This paper after asserting the significance of good pronunciation and its teaching deals with the goals of pronunciation that the Pakistani teachers and learners should aim for. This is followed by a discussion about the choice of pronunciation model for the Pakistani speakers of English.

THE IMPORTANCE OF TEACHING PRONUNCIATION SKILLS

Pronunciation has sometimes been referred to as the "poo relation" (Brown, 1988: 6) of English language teaching and is ofte given little attention, if not completely ignored. However, very few people would deny the importance of pronunciation. It is th

primary medium through which we bring our use of language to the attention of other people. Though indispensable in many situations it also,

> "... makes the speaker vulnerable to his listeners either on account of the social inferences that they may draw concerning him or on account of the opinions that they may form concerning his proficiency as a student or both".
>
> (Stevic, 1978: 113)

Unfortunately in Pakistani classrooms, the teaching of pronunciation is not given much importance. It is treated as an "optional extra" (Tench, 1981), by the language teachers, and as a result even those students who sound very fluent and speak grammatically correct language are imperfectly intelligible to listeners owing to poor pronunciation.

> "The corner occupied by phonetics in the field of human knowledge is an odd one- intensely cultivated, but little visited".
>
> (Abercrombie, 1956: 86)

Language teachers must realise that the teaching of adequate pronunciation is, though difficult, a necessary ingredient of effective language work. The knowledge of pronunciation can mean the difference between intelligibility and incomprehensibility.

In foreign language teaching the notion of communicative competence and the "negotiation of meaning" is also a matter to be considered at this point. It implies communication skills beyond the boundaries of the classroom to be the main objective of the language course. This objective, however cannot be realised without

intelligible pronunciation, stress and intonation patterns which contribute greatly to mutual understanding of the message".

Kenworthy (1987) suggests that the language teacher should also persuade the learners of the importance of good pronunciation and should endeavour to make them aware of the basic phonological distinctions. In order to do this she might need to provide them with some theoretical knowledge besides giving them active practice. The amount and degree of abstract knowledge of the phonological systems should depend on the students' level and the teaching and learning context.

Asserting the significance of good pronunciation for ease of communication, Kenworthy says,

> "Pronunciation is seen not only as part of the system for expressing referential meaning, but also as an important part of the interactional dynamics of the communicative process.....it is artificial to divorce pronunciation from communication and from other aspects of language use, for sounds are a fundamental part of the process by which we communicate and comprehend lexical, grammatical and socio-linguistic meaning."
>
> (1987: 9)

Pre-eminence should, therefore be given to the systematic study of sounds as the basis of speech. Pronunciation instruction, according to Wong (1987), can accomplish a number of things. It can:

1. make students aware of the major components of the spoken (English) system;

2. show them the importance of the components in the expression of meaning and communication in general;

3. train students how to look for these features in natural speech;

4. teach students how to perceive these features in their own speech; and

5. give students the skill for self-improvement in pronunciation.

Before starting the teaching programme, the teacher must decide what "goals" of pronunciation should the learner aim for.

Pronunciation Targets

> "The target or model to be learned must be consciously selected and terminal standards of achievement must be formulated, not only in general terms ('Adequate intelligibility', 'native-like accent', etc.) but as precisely as possible".
>
> (Strevens, 1974: 103)

Now we have to deal with the question of what degree of accuracy, fluency and appropriateness ought to be expected from the learners. Abercrombie argues for 'intelligibility' instead of perfection:

> "Most..... language learners need no more than a comfortably intelligible pronunciation.... I believe that pronunciation teaching should have, not a goal which must of necessity be normally an unrealized ideal, but a 'limited' purpose which will be completely fulfilled: the attainment of intelligibility".
>
> (Abercrombie, 1956: 37)

It is not impossible to acquire native-like pronunciation. There are a few rare individuals who are superb mimics and quickly adopt a native-like pronunciation, often in a variety of languages. Such individuals appear to be able to do this quite independently, without much support from any teaching programmme. According to Brown and Yule (1983) it would be absurd to expect such a performance from all the students by setting native-like pronunciation as a target in an educational system. Since it would follow that the majority of both teachers and students would end up as failures.

> "A more reasonable approach would seem to be one where a much more relaxed attitude to 'correctness' is adopted, and many more students can attain success".
>
> (Brown and Yule, 1983: 23)

'Correctness, in terms of pronunciation is also a frequent goal in spoken language programmes. Many teachers, however have at last accepted, after years of rigorous attention to pronunciation, that the aim of achieving native-like pronunciation is unreasonable and almost unattainable.

> "Now-a-days the teacher probably tries to achieve the set of phonological contrasts which is manifested in RP, but does not worry too much about the phonetic detail".
>
> Brown and Yule, 1983: 26)

The only students who need to produce highly polished accents are future English teachers.

For Pakistani students we should set the goal advocated by Abercrombie. Less than 1% off Pakistani students get the opportunity of studying in English speaking countries. So

international intelligibility should be our goal instead of native-like pronunciation.

Kentworthy (1987: 13) talks about 'intelligibility' in these terms:

> "when we set intelligibility as our goal, rather than native-like pronunciation, in practical terms this means we are aiming for something 'close enough'. In other words, although the foreign speaker doesn't make precisely the same sound or use the exact feature of linkage or stress, it is possible for the listener to match the sound heard with sound a native speaker would use without too much difficulty."

Pakistani teachers should never actively discourage their students from setting 'high' goals for themselves but their ultimate goal for the majority of the listeners should be something 'close enough'.

The choice of pronunciation model

After the question of pronunciation goals has been settled, we have to decide which model of English pronunciation we should choose to help in attaining these goals. Several authorities would recommend RP for this purpose because:

1. It is the widely used pronunciation model for learners of English a foreign or second language in very many parts of the world.

2. It has been thoroughly investigated and is used in most of the manuals and dictionaries of pronunciation published in Britain.

3. Due to its wide acceptance as a pronunciation model, most of the text books and accompanying tapes intended for foreign learners use RP.

It helps when there is a clearly agreed standard to work with.

"The use of RP as the reference accent .... brings with it certain benefits."

(Brown, 1988:214)

The weight of argument in favour of RP appears to be overwhelming, but there are problems that need examining. Pakistani English teachers do not posses an RP accent and even if they try to speak in that accent their speech sounds affected. It would not be a good strategy on the part of the teachers to use their own accent most of the time and conduct pronounciation exercises in RP. Tench (1981: 17) believes that the pronunciation should be kept consistent in all the stages of teaching. He suggests,

"Teach an accent that is acceptable and keep it consistently in all your teaching point out any major differences between RP and American pronunciation in an incidental way."

(Tench, 1981: 17)

The implication here is that some knowledge of RP and American pronunciation is desirable on the part of the teachers.

The logical solution for our situation seems to be that RP should be kept as a model with certain acceptable variations and adjustments. In doing so that element of international intelligibility should not be overlooked. We do not aim to produce 'Englishised Pakistanis' but such pronunciation is desirable as it is intelligible to the educated native speakers of English as listeners. RP is chosen

a model instead of American English because in our country for historical and cultural reasons there is a preference for teaching British English and since among all British accents RP is the most commonly appearing accent in dictionaries, text books and accompanying tapes, this model should be favoured.

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ORIENTALIST OTHERING SOME NOTES ON ITS FORMULATION

Muhammad Abbas Zaidi

1. INTRODUCTION

Othering as a term in Orientalist discourse is profoundly influenced by Said and Fabian (1). It is based upon the binary opposition of We-They. According to Fabian, Othering is an anthropological-temporal phenomenon (2). That is, the people being othered are portrayed as lagging behind the observer ---- the white man --- and, by implication, his people in an anthropological and historical sense. This means that the person being observed is yet to cover certain evolutionary stages compared with the observer. The stance taken by the observer is that the "advanced" vis-a-vis the "primitive" summed up by a Read,

> "We know that the primitive man of today has mental equipment very different from those of the civilised man. It is much more fragmented, much more discontinuous, more 'gestalt-free' Professor Judge once told me ,how, in his travels in the African bush, he had noticed quivering eye-balls of his native guards: not steady gaze of the European, but a darting restlessness of vision, due perhaps to the constant expectation of danger. Such eye movements must be coordinated with mental alertness and a swifty changing imagery that allows little opportunity for discursive reasoning, for contemplation and comparison:" (3).

The view has been criticised by Goody when he says,

> "We speak in terms of primitive and advanced, almost as if human minds themselves differ in their structure like machines of an earlier and later design" (4).

This is why the traveller sailing to the other end of the earth pretends to be travelling in time; he is like an archaeologist uncovering the past; every step he takes is a step back towards some archetypal provenance. This view is shared by Fabian (5). For Pratt, a person being Othered is treated as "seen/scene: (6). That is, there is a circumstantially fabricated sociological rift between the observer and the observed. The Other is no more than a passive, mindless object of the observer's sight, a scene awaiting appreciation of the visitor who turns out to be a coloniser.

2. DEFINITION

With the above in view, we might say that Othering is, on the part of the observer ---- the Otherer ---- creation of a sociopsychological distance between himself and the person(s) ---- the Othered/Otheree(s) ---- observed. The more there is the distance, the stronger would Othering be. Othering is always based on some bias for or against the person ---- or some point of view or ideology ---- being Othered. It is always judgmental.

The bulk of Othering is akin to religious fanaticism is content and approach because both of them are based on self-righteousness: the we-are-superior-and-they-are-inferior formula. "They" are judged on the criterion of "We" and then dismissed as inferior or deficient in some way or the other, because "they" are not like "WE". This situation is best summed up by Gabriel Carcia Marques; he says,

> "It is only natural that they insist on measuring us with the yardstick that they use for themselves,

forgetting that the ravages of time are not the same for all, and that the quest of our own identity is just as arduous and bloody for us as it was for them. The interpretation of our reality through patterns not our own serves only to make us ever more unknown, ever less free, ever more solitary": (7).

3. FORMULATION

All Othering is classificatory. Whenever a question of identity or vested interests emerges, Othering as an identifier crops up. A well-known truism is that the identification of Self is possible only when non-Self is identified: I-ness is distinct from You-ness: the more comprehensively different the Other is, the sharper the I-You distinction would be.

There are a number of devices engineered in order to create Othering. The Otherer observes from the standpoint of his own mores and cultural-traditional criteria. The following are some devices used to formulate Othering.

3.i.

Most of the Othering found in the colonial literature is based on the physical/geographical distance between the two peoples in question. An important device is that the people being Othered are portrayed as unequal to the observer (and by implication his people) in human terms: they are such creatures as live in a timeless cosmos of inertia and fixity, they have inferior intelligence, they are subhuman creatures or at most a part of the landscape they live in; and their feelings, responses and actions are different from the people who would later colonies them. Moreover, as we find is colonial discourse, the natives are not fit to rule ---- even themselves. Here is an example,

> "In his disposition he is lively and cheerful; in his person active. His talent far above mediocrity; and averse to idleness, they are seldom without employment. Confined generally to their hovels by day, for fear of being surprised and taken by the farmers, they sometimes dance on moonlit nights from setting to the rising of the sun... the small circular trodden places around the huts indicated their fondness for this amusement. His cheerfulness is the more extraordinary, as the morsel he produces to support existence is earned with danger and fatigue. He neither cultivates the ground nor breeds cattle; and his country produces few natural productions that serve for food. The bulbs of the iris, and a few gramineous roots of a bitter and pungent taste, are all that vegetable kingdom affords him. By the search of these the whole surface of the plains near the hordes was scratched" (8).

The people being othered-----usually one specimen represents the entire species----are portrayed as too inferior to be on par with the Europeans. Their lives are caught in a web of progresslessness and intellectlessness. One is reminded of ancient Greek philosophers who would argue that slaves had no souls. In their behaviour and modes of living they are a light year behind the observer and his people. Probably they have not covered many of the evolutionary stages. Hence, as pratt puts it, Burrow's [the above-quoted] account sets its focus on the others amenability to domination and their potential as labour (9).

The above example insinuates that the native, representing the entire African stock, is incapable of communicating and probably he is so in genetic terms. This by implication contrasts with the observer and his people who are superior to the native(s) in every way. The insinuation that the other is congenitally inferior is found in the bulk of the orientalist literature. This attitude has been criticised by Goody who, while emitting that the difference between "We" and "They", does not accept that "They" are by birth inferior to "We"; he says,

> "I certainly do not wish to deny that there are difference in the 'thought' or 'mind' of 'we' and 'they', nor that the problems which may have concerned many observers... are of no significance. But the way they have been tackled seems open to a whole range of queries. Perhaps I may put the central difficulty in terms of personal experience. In the course of several years living among the people of 'other cultures', I have never experienced the kind of hiatus in communication that would be the case if I and they were approaching the physical world from opposite ends. That this experience is not unique seems apparent from the contemporary changes occurring in developing countries where the shift from the Neolithic to the modern science is encapsulated into the space of a man's lifetime. The boy brought up as a bricoleur becomes an engineer. He has his difficulties, but they do not lie at the level of an overall opposition between wild and domesticated minds, thoughts or approaches, but on a much more particularistic level" (10).

3.ii.

Othering can be formulated on the notion of dirt, dirtiness and physical/physiological aberration or inferiority (11). An example of the notion of dirt comes from Naipaul, which is enough to repel a European, "Indians defecate everywhere. They defecate, mostly beside the railway tracks. But also defecate on the beaches; they defecate on the streets; they never look for cover ..." (12).

3.iii.

The propaganda of spiritual inferiority/deviance or superiority has played an important role in Othering. In the historical perspective the spiritual basis of Othering has been noted by Kabbani,

> "The projection of evil onto a faraway culture was also a significant aspect of medieval Europe's bulwark of bigotry. And since it had a potential opponent in the Islamic state, it fashioned a polemic to check whatever influenced such a rival state might have. The polemic was highly charged with hostility, and notable for the fanaticism that engendered it. Islam was seen as the negation of Christianity; Muhammad was an imposter, an evil sensualist, an Anarchist in alliance with the Devil. The Islamic world was seen as Anti-Europe, and held in suspicion as such" (13).

3.iv.

Othering is also created on the plea that two cultures, religions or societies are outright incompatible and pregiven; hence, the two peoples belonging to two different cultures, etc., cannot come together. An example,

> "An Englishman has no conception of the meaning of a philosophic or religious problem. The notion that the material world could be a mere illusion is one that could never appeal to him as even intelligible ... His religion, when he has one, is a transfigured morality, not a mysticism. He is practical, thorough and through, in spiritual as well as in material things. Between him and the Indian and Gulf is impassable" (14).

4. CONCLUSION

All Orientalist discourse foregrounds Othering because it is its raison d etre. The European reader has been interested in reading the Orientalist discourse only because it differentiates him from the Orient. Since the Other was geographically far removed from the Continent, it was possible for the observer to magnify even the

minor differences that existed between his reader and the Other Hence the greater the magnification, the more sharpening of th reader's curiosity and interest, and the more importance accorded t the observer. But unfortunately the observer opted to focus on th negative aspects of the Other, and most of his "observations" wer pure lies. These lies were to be the bane of the Other in the histor of colonialism and then imperialism.

5. OUTLOOK

Not all Othering is malignant. There are some Europea writers who have dealt with Othering in a neutral or even positiv way. They do accept that the differences exist between the observ and the observed; but they do not develop a negative critique them. When E.M. Forster says,

> "I want to go beyond the field of action and behaviour: the waters of the river that rises from the middle of the earth to join the Ganges and the Jamna, but she can't give them to me" (15),

He is not affirming the differences between his culture a the one he is observing; he is never negative is his stance. Forste A Passage to India is another good example of Othering without a negativity attached to it; in the novel India emerges as a land mystery and mysticism whose intricacies elude Europeans. E Forster accepts the differences as a fact of life and does not want change or discredit it.

There is a lot of room for research in this area.

As opposed to the Othering of the Orient, we can speak the Othering of the Occident: the way the Orient has observed occident and found incompatibility between the two. A lot of w can be done in this area: we can come out with Occidentalism opposed to Orientalism.

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See Fabian, especially Chapters 1 and 2.

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Goody, Jack (1977) The Domestication of the Savage Mind, CUP, p.1.

Ibid.

Pratt, M.L. "Scratches on the Face of the Country", in Critical Quarterly, Autumn, 1985.

Quoted by Kabbani; see below.

John Burrow quoted by Pratt, 1985 pp. 119 - 120. Mark the subtle interplay between "he" and "they".

Pratt, ibid. p. 120.

Goody, ibid. pp. 8-9.

Once a Candadian colleague of mine told me that the Pakistanis smelt of garlic. After some efforts I persuaded her to smelt about me. She smelt "nothing". Not even the musk that I had put on!

Naipaul, V.S. (1964) An Area of Darkness, London, Chapter 3.

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quoted by Drew, ibid. p. 9.

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ESTABLISHING A PURPOSE FOR DEVELOPING READING COMPREHENSION

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ABSTRACT

Reading at advanced level especially in the context of teaching English as a F/S language requires the learners to understand the main thoughts. This understanding is called comprehension. Extracting efficiently the required information from the text forms the core of reading comprehension. This aspect of learning English in F/S language context should receive special attention of the course designers and teachers.

It is the matter of common observation of most of the class teachers that unmotivated students have not shown positive results. The aim of the present article is to high light the importance of motivation in F/S language context. It suggests that without establishing a purpose, any exercise in reading comprehension will end in frustration. This study puts the University teachers on alert and provides a piece of advice to consider the aspect of motivation for developing reading comprehension.

INTRODUCTION

Teaching of English as a foreign language at advanced level primarily aims at enabling students to read books, journals and other

relevant material of concern in English fluently and with reasonable understanding. So it is the skill of reading comprehension that they need most during the course of reading for information. Burt (1977) states to this effect:

> "Reading for information in unquestionably a highly valuable skill in a foreign language. Adequate speed in reading with good comprehension is a responsibility of any educationally - based course in EFL". (P. 41)

Afolayan (1983) states that "the most important task in reading is to understand the main ideas and thoughts that the author is trying to communicate" (P. 41). We agree with Afolayan that understanding the main thoughts of a text forms the core of reading comprehension. We need, therefore, guide and teach our students, how to extract the main ideas found at the level of paragraph, section, chapter and book. Obviously, we should also accept the responsibility of explaining our students, as an introductory activity, that a reading exercise in fact aims at conveying a thought, an idea or a piece of information. It should, then, be their task to find the main ideas at every level of the text.

ESTABLISHING A PURPOSE

The above reading purpose cannot be achieved until the student is well motivated. Motivation is basic to all types of learning, and teaching of English as a foreign/.second Language is no exception to this principle. It rather demands a higher degree of motivation to achieve efficiency in reading speed and comprehension.

It is worth suggesting that a student especially at advance level during university education must have a specific purpose to deal with the text. He must be convinced of the benefits he is to gain from a particular text, after reading exercise. Motivation to read cannot be created without some incentive, logic and purpose.

Simon Swan (1986) with reference to effective reading states that:

> "Everyone reads with some kind of purpose in mind, generally speaking the purpose is either to enjoy oneself or to obtain information of some kind. Effective reading means being able to read accurately and efficiently and to understand as much of the passage as you need in order to achieve your purpose:. (P. 2)

Wallace (1980) with regard to purposeful reading, suggests that:

> "Before you start reading a book or long article that is connected with your studies, it is always worthwhile taking a minute or two to ask yourself why you are reading, and what you hope to learn from it. If you have no clear purpose in reading the text, or if you are confused about the purpose, the result can be boredom: lack of comprehension, misunderstanding, or simply time wasting". (P . 9)

Wallace tries to make this fact clear that unmotivated exercise in reading would not bring in fruit, and there would be no increase in reading efficiency and comprehension.

Purpose in reading, reading material and reading speed are closely linked with each other. Different kinds of reading material require different rates of speed for different purposes.

Afolayan (1983) suggests in this context that:

> "Before the reader can decide at what speed he needs to read any particular material -- i.e., how much mental effort will be required--it is necessary to define the purpose. There are four basic and very

important purposes that are common to most university reading:

a) to obtain an overall understanding of the main ideas presented in the material.

b) to find any specific information, such as a name or place.

c) to obtain such an understanding of the material that it can be recalled in the order originally presented.

d) to evaluate and criticize. (P. 34)

Modern research indicates that a good reader has always a flexible attitude towards reading. He often varies his reading speed according to the nature of the material under study and the purpose involved. We, therefore, need to explain all these concepts to our students while evolving strategies to improve their reading speed without the loss of comprehension.

Afolayan (1983) gives a comprehensive list of generally recognized common purposes and advises students to assign one of four reading rates to each purpose:

Study (careful)
Normal
Rapid
Skimming

i) To find references and to locate now materials.

ii) To review familiar material.

iii) To master content, including details.

iv) To appreciate beauty of literary style

v) To find answers to specific questions.

vi) To keep up with current events.

vii) To go through a book or magazine with speed and fair comprehension.

viii) To read material with unusual vocabulary.

ix) To evaluate material.

x) To read narrative material, primarily for the plot.

xi) To get the main ideas, or central thoughts.

xii) To answer specific question

xiii) To re-read familiar material.

xiv) To read with the intention of being able to retell the story later.

xv) To read with the intention of memorising interesting details.

xvi) To locate specific points or details.

xvii) To note details

xviii) To get the general idea of selection.

xix) To solve a problem.

xx) To get details in sequence as in the following directions.

xxi) To read material of average difficulty.

xxii) To review a familiar story.

xxiii) To outline, summarise or paraphrase

sxxiv) To judge literary merits.

xxv) To analyses author's presentation

xxvi) To obtain bird's eye view of many publications.

xxvii) To read informational material for pleasure o relaxation.

xxvii) To grasp the relation of details to main ideas

xxix To get information for the temporary use.

xxx) To follow the plot of a novel.

DEVELOPING READING COMPREHENSION

After the student is motivated and has a purpose before him a regards the reading activity, he needs to be taught:

> "That reading involves correlating, elements of language with meaning. The most familiar of all elements of language are Words and it must be quite clear that what is involved in understanding a text is understanding the meaning of individual words in the text. Understanding the meanings of individual words is not the end either. The efficient reader needs to be able to understand the patterns of relationship between words---- the semantic patterns of lexical words.

> Thus he must learn to observe for example how a series of synonyms can carry a particular concept through a passage." (Broughton et al (1980) pp. 94-95.

Broughton et all (1980) after analysing the nature of this skill in above terms suggest finally that "every reader must make some kind of evaluation of the text he reads. Until he does this, he cannot be said to have fully comprehended them". (P. 98)

Understanding a written text at advanced stage of learning English as a foreign language means extracting the required information from it as efficiently as possible. Efficient and rapid transfer of relevant information with full understanding at this stage requires improvement in reading, vocabulary recognition and the comprehension of sentences and paragraphs of the text involved.

It is generally agreed that reading speed and comprehension are closely linked. Nuttall (1982), asserts that "A very slow reader is likely to read with poor understanding. Any programme, therefore, aimed to increase reading speed must also give due consideration to develop one's comprehension.

While we are teaching English as foreign or second language to our students at advanced level, the aspect of comprehension should receive special attention. Before we embark upon the extensive requirements of EFL or ESL course, we should devise reading comprehension exercises to train our students to cope properly with the course. Grellet (1981) states that reading as an active skill constantly involves guessing, predicting, checking and asking oneself questions. To him, "This should therefore, be taken into consideration when devising reading comprehension exercise", (P.8). In this context, he further advises as to the flexibility and variability of the activities that:

"Reading comprehension exercises should be suited to the texts and to one's reasons for them. It is essential to take into account the author's point of view, intention and tone for a full understanding of the text. This may be covered by open questions, multiple choice questions, right or wrong questions etc". (P.9)

However, it is suggested here that the reading comprehensi exercises must be based on specific goals so that the stude appreciate the message and enjoy reading the text. Any go determined in this context and the activities should be explained the students. Chastain (1976) suggests that "students should aware that they are to read for appreciation and enjoyment of t content" (P. 315). For the students to proceed properly a satisfactorily to accomplish these goals he further advises that:

"The teacher should give them some hints as to the "how" as well as an explanation of the "what" and "why". Before they read any outside materials (and perhaps also in reading textual materials as well), students should be given some hints for improving their approach to reading for comprehension". (P .315)

It is true, no doubt, that reading comprehension is a private a solitary activity and teacher cannot play an active role while t students are practising it. But, generally guidance as to the selecti of material, planning follow-up activities, determining the level difficulty of the material to be read, is to contribute a lot to b students' confidence and make the text interesting.

In second language situations, generally it is difficult in beginning for students to think directly in the target language. A it is a matter of common observation among our students that t try to convert almost every item of the second language i equivalent forms in the first language. It is guidance of the teac on this occasion that the students can learn that reading directly

he target language enables them to grasp the totality of meaning and ey soon become efficient readers. The teacher can help them a t simply by encouraging them to read for the content of the aterial in the target language as they do while reading in the nother tongue.

It seems here after discussing the nature and scope of reading omprehension that we can exploit it as a skill of great importance r efficient transfer of information to our students of advanced level.

ONCLUSION

As regards the reading skills, it is often viewed by the experts as major source for developing general language proficiency in F/S nguage context. Thus, developing the skill itself then becomes ery significant. This article that has suggested to motivate the arner by making reading activities interesting, meaningful and urposeful is hoped to be of great benefit both to the learners and the achers.

Generally reading programmes stress understanding the text with onsiderable speed. But this article argues that the student should ot be taught just to be a good reader, he should rather learn to igest the text with pleasure.

Developing reading comprehension becomes a very useful xercise when the learner is convinced of the benefits of the reading sk. And this has been the sole object of this article that has upported the idea of establishing a purpose for developing reading omprehension.

However, reading comprehension is so important at advanced vel that it demands continuous attention of researchers to develop ppropriate materials and design effective strategies. The present rticle can be considered as an attempt calling for further work in epth and detail.

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AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE ROOT, THE INFINITIVE, AND THE PAST FORMS OF THE PERSIAN VERBS

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INTRODUCTION

Both Persian and English languages still retain the concept of the **Base/Root**, the **infinitive,** the **imperative,** and the **past** forms in the verb system. However, the modern grammarians of the English language refer to the **imperative** and the **infinitive** "functions" of the basic form of the verb rather than to their independent forms. (Quirk et al, 1973, p. 70) Although a great deal of things have gone their different ways during the last four centuries, there was a time when Old English and Old Persian had identical **infinitive** marker, /-an/, as a suffix. Whereas Persian still retains it, as do some other Indo-European Languages (for example, /nu/ in Sindhi and /na/ in Hindi-Urdu), English lost it gradually by the end of the Middle

English period, changing over to **to** as an infinitive marker which is an independent lexeme also used as a **preposition** and an **adverb.**

Table 1. showing the **infinitive** and the **imperative** in Persian, English, and other language:

Language	Infinitive	Imperative
Modern Persian	/raftan/ (to go)	/rav/ (go)
Old English	/faran/ (to go)	/far/ (go)
Modern English	to fare (to go)	fare (go)
Hindi-Urdu	/ja:na:/ (to go)	/ja:/ (go)
Sindhi	/waÑaNu/ (to go)	/waÑu/ (go)

Persian and English verb systems diverged in another very fundamental way as regards the **base-infinitive-imperative-past** relationship. In other Indo-European languages, by dropping the **infinitive** marker, we get the **base,** which is closer to the **imperative** form of the verb inflected for the second person. Not so in Persian, where by dropping the **infinitive** marker the **preterite** (the past) form of the verb called /ma:daey ma:zi:/ is formed. This **past root** is inflected for the third person singular rather than the second person.

Table 2. showing formation of the **Past Root** from the Infinitive **in Persian:**

Infinitive	**Infinitive marker is dropped**	**Past Root is formed**
/raftan/ = to go	drop /an/ (an=to) =>	/raft/ = he went
/xordan/ = to eat	drop /an/ (an=to) =>	/xord/ = He ate

Whereas in English dropping of the **infinitive marker** gets what can be called the **base form** (which functions as the **simple present tense** as well as the **imperative),** in Persian, it takes three definite steps from dropping of the first part of the **infinitive** marker to getting an **imperative.**

Table 3 showing formation of the past root, the Present Root, and the Imperative from the Infinitive:

We have	We drop or add	We get
a. Infinitive /xordan/	drop Infinitive marker /an/	Past root /xord/
b. Past root /xord/	drop past marker /d/	Present root /xor/
c. Present root /xor/	add (prefix) imperative marker /bi/	Imperative for second person singular /bixor/
d. Imperative for second person singular /bixor/	add suffix for second person plural /i:d/	Imperative for second person plural /bixori:d/

2. THE CONTROVERSY OVER THE ROOT, TH INFINITIVE, AND THE PAST IN PERSIAN:

This unusual behaviour of the **morphological derivations** in t Persian verb has intrigued grammarians throughout the ages. continuing controversy has been going on concerning the thr related questions about the **Root/base, the past and the Infinitiv**

(A) What is the **Root (the base)** form of the **Verb in Persian:**

(i) Is the **Infinitive (masder)** the root

(ii) Is the **Past (the**/ma:dey ma:zi:/.)? the root, or

(iii) Is the **aorist, (the present form), the /ma:daey maza:re'/)** the root?

(B) What constitutes the **infinitive** marker in Persian?

(i) /tan/ or /dan/ the infinitive marker, or (both);

(ii) one of the two (/dan/ or /tan/) as an infinitive, one at one time, which later on developed into two infinitives); or

(iii) Only /an/ as the real infinitive marker as in most other Indo-European languages

(C) What is the basis of the choice between /t/ and /d/ as past markers.

(A) **The Root/Base controversy:**

The Root/base controversy poses three possible questions:

(i) Is the infinitive (masder) the base / root?
(ii) Is the past root (ma:daey ma:zi:/) the Base/Root?
(iii) Is the present root (ma:daey maza:re') the Base/Root?

(i) The infinitive (masder) as the base/root

Some scholars consider the **infinitive** in Persian to be the **base** form and all other morphological forms to be derived from it. One obvious reason of this traditional thinking is that the **masder** (which is inadequately translated into English as **"infinitive")** should, literally speaking, be the fountain-head of all the morphological derivatives, the place from where every other form takes its /sudu:r/, emanation or origin, as in Arabic the word **masder** means the "starting point, origin, source... " (Wehr, 1980, p. 507). It also

follows that the **root/masder** would not be derived from any oth source. Both of these assumptions may not, however, stand the te of argument.

A careful study of the Persian morphological system shows th its **infinitive** does not meet the requirements of this definition. this case, other derivatives are formed by dropping the infiniti marker, and, then, **past** marker. Therefore the Persi **infinitive**/masder, like /guftan/, is less likely to the **base,** the roo or the **starting point.**

(ii) **The past root (/madaey ma:zi:/) as the Base/Root**

Other grammarians of the Persian language, working on t analogy of the **three-lettered non-speakable root/base** system Arabic, were encouraged into assuming that the **past root, /ma:da ma:zi:/** in Persian was the **base/root** from which all other derivativ emanated. However, as it is obvious, the analogy is not based o firm foundation.

(iii) **the present root (/ma:daey maza:re'/) as t Base/Root**

If the **base/root** in other languages is considered as t morphological stage from which other forms are derived, Persi **present root, /ma:dey maza:re'/,** is the one that meets the definiti of the **base /root.** However, before we come back to this argume we need to put the 'infinitive' in the perspective.

B) THE INFINITIVE MARKER controversy:

Apparently there are three possible questions related with t controversy as well:

(i) Is /an/ the Infinitive marker?
(ii) Is /tan/ or dan/ the infinitive marker?

(iii) Which one is the original infinitive marker: /tan/ or /dan/?

i) /an/ as the Infinitive marker

Some grammarians argue in favour of /an/ being the **infinitive marker.** They apparently seem to have been influenced by the universal phenomena that most other languages have /an/ as **infinitive marker.**

ii) /tan/ or /dan/ as the infinitive marker

Other scholars argue in favour of /tan/ or dan/ being the **infinitive marker/s.** They are perhaps persuaded by the apparent reality that the dropping of the infinitive **(masder)** marker in most other languages results into the **base or the imperative** form of the verb. Obviously, the scholars of this line of argument think, **infinitive (the masder)** and the **base/imperative (amr)** should behave the same way in Persian as they do in other languages. In Persian this end result (the **base** or the **imperative)** is achieved by dropping the entire /tan/ or /dan/. For that reason, they think, /tan/ or /dan/ should be considered the **infinitive (masder)** markers.

(iii) The original infinitive marker: /tan/ or /dan/?

The controversy as to whether /tan/ was the original **infinitive marker** or /dan/ rests on the obvious assumption that there must have been one **infinitive marker** at the beginning in Persian as, it is, presumably, in all other languages, and that some kind of phonological process must have caused the bifurcation into two infinitive markers at a later stage.

(C) The basis of the choice between /t/ and /d/ as Past markers:

Some scholars, including Khanlari, do not consider /t/ or /d/ as a separate morpheme considering /tan/ or /dan/ to be one

morpheme. They consider /tan/ to follow four 'letters', f, s, S, an X, and /dan/ all other 'letters'.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND TO THE CONTROVERSIES

Khanlari, the author of Dastoore Zaba:ne Farsi (**The Gramma of the Persian Language)** has given an enlightening background o this triple-directional controversy on the base, the **Infinitive and th past** in Persian. He brings in witness from a number of ancient an modern Persian scholars and poets to bear on these issues regardin the base, **the infinitive (masder), the Past root** and **the Presen Root.** The names of great ancient and modern scholars can b quoted siding each school of thought:

(a) In his discussion, Khanlari shows some ancient scholars to hav point out that /an/ has been added to the **past root** to form a **infinitive,** and that in case /an/ is dropped, what is left is the **pas root** of the verb, probably considering it to be the base on th analogy of the left is the **past root** of the verb, probably considerin it to be the base on the analogy of the Arabic grammar which has th three-lettered unpronounceable root semantically in th neighbourhood of the **Past Root** on the introduction of vowel rendering it articulate.

(b) There was also, apparently, a school of thought which debate whether **/dan/** was the original **infinitive marker** or **/tan/,** an which one of the two was a later development. Khan Aarzoo, th author of Zavaayedul Favai'd, is quoted by Khanlari to have argue that /tan/ was the original **infinitive marker** in Old Persian Khanlari himself favours this line of thinking claiming that th original **infinitive marker** was /tan/ from Old Persian /-tanaiy/ an that following the assimilation rule all /tan/s changed to /dan/s excep when the preceding sound was a voiceless consonant. In support o his argument, he, further, cites the example of Sanskrit voiceles stop /t/ changing to voiced stop /d/ into Indo-European languages (a in .ma:ter/ ==> /ma:der/).

(c) Khanlari goes on to conclude that all **infinitives** at one time must have ended into /tan/ and that the /dan/ was a later development. He cites the examples of /guftan/, /kuStan/, /bastan/, /a:mu:Xtan/ where /tan/ remained unassimilated after /f/, /s/, /S/, and /X/ (kh). Furthermore, he takes pains to claim that /t/ and /d/ are not past markers.

The First Scientific Description:

Although some ancient scholars, including Maulana Abdur Rahman Jami, were able to point out that only four 'letters' (X [kh], s, S, and f) took the infinitive /tan/ as against /dan/ which followed all other 'letters', this theme was never developed to the point where the basis of the bifurcation of /t/ and /d/ could be established on definite scientific criteria. Basides, modern scholars, including Khanlari, even chose to refute such a hypothesis.

All these arguments are confusing and inconclusive and will remain so as long as they are without the support of any empirical or rational evidence from linguistic science or phonetics. The arguments presented by the authors of ypre fall short of taking that one little step which would establish the nature of the **past marker(s)** as related with the **base/root** and the **infinitive.** They also fail to bring convincing evidence for the basis of considering **back-formation** to be the basis of morphological derivation rather than **affixation.**

3. DESCRIPTIONS OF THE DERIVATIONAL PROCESSES:

It is possible to propose three models regarding the origin of the **base/root** and ensuring directional movement during the derivational activity:

Model 1: **back-formation** (the process proceeds from top to bottom, moving backwards), /xordan/ ==> /xord/ ==> KHOR

Model 2: **bi-directional movement** moving from **Past root** backwards to get **present root** and moving forwards to get **infinitive** or **imperative,** and

Model 3: **affixation** in which the process proceeds from bottom to top, moving forwards forming the **past root** and the **infinitive** from the **present root.)**

MODEL 1. In case the **infinitive** is the base, the **Past Root** and **present Root** are formed by **back-formation.** At the first stage, clipping, we drop the infinitive marker; at the second stage, shearing, we drop the past marker.

Table 4, showing formation of Past Root and Present Root in case the infinitive is the Root.

BASE	STEP 1 Drop Infinitive Marker	the Past Root is formed	STEP 2 Drop past marker	The Present Root is formed	STEP 3 Add imperative marker	The Imperative Sing/plural is formed
kuStan	- an	kuSt	- t	kuS	bi /bu	bikuS/i:d
xordan	- an	xord	- d	xor	.. id	bixor/i:d

According to this **back-formation** process, the **past root** and the **present root** are formed from the **infinitive,** and, then, the **imperative** by a process of prefixing and suffixing. It takes two steps (to be called **clipping** and **shearing**) to get rid of the entire **infinitive** component, and the third step of **prefixing** to get the **imperative** inflected for the **present tense,** second person **singular.** It requires the fourth step of **suffixation** to get the **imperative** for the second person **plural.**

(i) At the **clipping** stage, the last /an/, sound is dropped to get what is called **ma:daey ma:zi:,** the **past root** or the **Preterite,** indicating action in the past without reference to duration, continuance, or repetition. This form of the verb is also inflected for the third person singular, and is gender-free. This is unlike English where an **imperative** is formed after dropping the **infinitive** marker.

(a) /raftan/ = = drop /an/ = = > /raft/
(To go = = drop to = = > (he went)

(b) /Xordan/ = = drop /an/ = = > /Xord/
(to eat = drop to = = > (he ate)

(ii) At step two, **shearing,** the entire /dan/ or /tan/ in the **Infinitive** form, the **(masder),** (or the final /t/ or /d/ in the past root, **(ma:daey ma:zi:),** is dropped to get what is called the **Present Root,** the **aorist, (ma:daey maza:re).** This **Present root,** strictly speaking, is still far from being an **imperative (amr),** although it is inflected for second person singular.

/raft/ drop /t/ to get /raf/; change /f/ > /v/ = > /rav/
(He went = drop past maker + assimilation = > you [singular] go.)

(iii) In order to get an **imperative** form, /bi/ or /bu/ is **prefixed to the** present root. At this stage, the speaker has a choice of an **imperative** for the singular or the plural of the second person. The **pronominalization** mark in the Verb form of the **imperative** mood changes according to this choice. Moreover, the final realisation of the **imperative** may require a slight phonetic change, assimilation, at the **base** form in some cases.

(iv) The fourth step in the process requires **suffixing pronominalization** for the second person plural **imperative.**

Table 5 showing formation of the **past root, present root,** and **imperative** from the **infinitive** (Example, /Xordan/ = masder, infinitive):

Step 1:	/Xordan/==drop /an/ ==> /Xord/ (past root)
Step 2:	/Xordan/==> /d/ ==> /Xor/ (the present root ma:daey maza:re).)
Step 3:	/Xor/== + affix /bi/ ==> /biXor/ (imperative for the second person singular.)
Step 4:	/Xor/== + aff. /bi/ + suffix /i:d/=> /biXori:d/ (imperative for the second person plural)

Model 2 In case the **Past Root** is the base, the **infinitive** is formed by **prefixing** and the **Present Root** by **back-for formation.** The derivational movement is **bi-directional.**

Figure 1 showing bi-directional movement of derivational activity forming the **Present root** and the **imperative** if the **past root** is the **base:**

PAST ROOT ----> BACK FORMATION = = >

1. Drop Past Marker to get Present Root
2. Affix Imperative Marker to the Present Root to get 2nd person singular imperative
3. Affix 2nd person Plural imperative marker to get second person Singular imperative

PAST ROOT ----> AFFIXATION = = > Affix infinitive marker to get infinitive. It is because of looking at the phenomena from the points of view of **back-formation** and **bi-directional** movement described in Model 1 and Model 2 above that the scholars have failed to see an extremely important relationship between Persian and other Indo-Germanic languages, namely that of the

formation of **preterite** or the past root in this peculiar way. AS is obvious, all Germanic languages formed the **preterite** by adding a dental suffix /d/ to the present form of the verb. This /d/ was, and still is, pronounced /t/ if the preceding sound is voiceless.

Therefore, it appears, that it is imperative to look at the process according to model 3, which considers the **Present Root** to be the **base** and, according to which, an affix is added in order to get other forms of the verb.

Model 3: In case, the **present root** is the **base,** the **Past root and the infinitive are formed by affixation.** The direction of the movement is forwards.

Present Root + past maker = > Past Root (Kush + t = > kusht)
Past Root + infinitive marker = > infinit. (kuSt + an + > kuSTan/)

Table 6 showing formation of the **Past Root** and the **infinitive** from the **Present Root** according to model 3: **Base = Present Root):**

Step 1		outcome	step 2	outcome
present root	+ Past => marker	Past root	+ infinitive ==> marker	Infinitive
/kuS/	/t/	/kuSt/	/an/	/kuStan/
/Xor/	/d/	/Xord/	/an/	/Xordan/

This ourtlook helps us see a regular relationship between Persian and other Indo-European languages showing how they form the **Preterite** or the **simple past** forms (the ed-1) in an identical way. For example, **walked, robbed,** in English and **kusht** and **khord** in Persian with /t/ and /d/.

4. THE INFINITIVE MARKER CONTROVERSY:

In order to provide evidence for resolving the **infinitive marke** problem, the **infinitive** markers in English and Persian will b compared.

In English there is only one **infinitive** marker, **"to,"** which i basically used as a **preposition** as well as an **adverb.** For example

i) He wants to go home **(to** is an **infinitive marker)**

ii) He wants **to** go **to** Tehran. (the first **to** and is **an INFINITIVE MARKER, the second a preposition.)**

iii) **He** ran **to** and **fro.** (Here the **to** is used as an adverb.)

In the contemporary grammatical system of English, the scholar speak of the **present,** the **imperative,** the **subjective,** and th **INFINITIVE "functions" of the base form** of the verb (Quirk et al 1973 p. 70.) Thus the **infinitive marker to** in English is considere to be added to the base form or the bare infinitive. The base (or th simple) form is also used as the imperative and is inflected fo present tense, second person singular or plural, masculine o feminine (that is, it is gender-free and number-free).

to eat = = drop To = => Eat
(i.e., you masculine/ feminine, singular/plural person(s) eat.

One obvious reason of considering /tan/ and /dan/ to be th infinitive marker is the strange phenomena that the /t/ and the /d/ ar so regular and so eternally present in this form that one doesn't eve think of looking at this process in any other way.

Some scholars tend to believe that the Persian **infinitive** has tw different realised forms: /tan/ and /dan/, only one of which depending upon the environment of the past root, is used as suffi

attached to the present root of the verb. Besides, it has only one function, that of the participial indicating that the preceding word is a verb. Contrary to the common supposition considering the **infinitive** to be the **root** of the verb. There, is a strong evidence that Sanskrit, the Prakrits, and most of the Germanic languages, including Old English, did not have **infinitive** as a **root/base** of the verb. The root/base in most of these languages is the present root, which is also the imperative in some languages. Evidently, something is always added to the base or imperative to get the infinitive and other forms. On the other hand, something is always dropped from the infinitive to retrieve the **root/base/imperative.**

Table 7 showing formation of the **infinitive** from the **imperative** in English, Sanskrit, and Sindhi:

language	Imperative	+ infinitive marker	Infinitive
Sanskrit	grah	+ itum =	grahitum
Old English	rid	+ an =	ridan (to ride)
Sindhi	wathu	/u/ + an =	wathanu (to get)

5. THE BASIS OF THE PAST MARKER IN ENGLISH

The English language has always formed the **preterite** (the simple past or the ed-1) in two ways: the so called **irregular** and **regular** ways. Both of them provide strong evidence of /t/ or /d/ being **Past markers.**

a. **The irregular** (or in Grimm's words, **storng)** verbs form their past forms by the internal change of vowels, usually, but not always, with a final **past marker** /t/ after **sonorants /I/, /r/, and /n/,** and /d/ after all **voiced sounds** including vowels.

(a) This /d/ was replaced by /t/ after a voiceless consonant preceded by another consonant or a short vowel, as in **blest, jumpt, slept.** The /t/ in a past form was considered to be a variation of /ed/ forming the past participle of the weak verbs from the 16th to the 18th century and later in individual usage.

(b) Before the spellings were standardised, the past form after the voiceless consonants used to be written phonetically with a /t/ at the end, obviously, as it was pronounced. Some of these words still retain the old spellings as **Crept lost, jumpt.**

This spelling has become universal where a long vowel in the stem has been shortended as in **dealt, knelt, meant, swept** from **creep, lose, deal, kneel, mean** and **sweep.**

(c) In certain other classes of verbs there has been general contraction of /ed/ which had begun in inflected formas in Old English. For example, after I, n, r the ending **ed-** has become /t/ as in **gilt, girt, sent, bent** instead of ***gilded*** ***girded,*** **bended,** and ***sended.**

(d) In other cases, with I, m, n, at the end of the stem **ed** has become /t/ as in **smelt, spilt, burnt.**

(e) Several verbs have parallel forms with and without contraction sometimes with a difference of use. For example:

burned	burnt;	learned	learnt;
penned	pent;	roasted	roast;
spoiled	spoilt;	lighted	lit.

(f) the **past marker** following the **sonorants** was also pronounced /t/, and in a number of cases it is still written in the old way (although modern English does not follow the rule any more) spelt, felt, meant, bent.

(g) cut => cut (instead of *cutted): No vowel change, extra past marker in assimilated into /t/: e.g: light=>lit:

The voiced /d/ and the voiceless /t/ in the base form take over as the past markers avoiding repetition of the plosive **past marker.** (Lighted is also used as an adjective.)

(B) The **regular** or **weak** verbs in English follow the pattern most other Gramanic languages do to form the **preterite:** addition of a suffix d/ed which is pronounced:

(1) /t/ after voiceless (p, f, k, s, S, C,) sounds;

(2) /d/ after voiced phonemes (b, v, g, z, Z, dj, m, n, r, and all vowel sounds); and

(3) /Id/ after alveolar plosives (i.e. /t/ or /d/.)

Table 8 showing pronunciation of the past /ed/ in regular English verbs:

Base form	Final phoneme	vI/vd	past form pronounced
a. rob	b	voiced	/robd
hug	g	voiced	/hugd/
judge	dj	voiced	/djudgd/
raise	z	voiced	/reIzd/
move	v	voiced	/mu:vd/
b. help	p	voiceless	/helpt/
walk	k	voiceless	/wo:kt/
watch	ts	voiceless	/woSt/
dance	s	voiceless	/da:nst/
wash	S	voiceless	/woSt/
cough	f	voiceless	/koft/
c. want	t	viced/alv.plo.	/wontId/
need	d	voiced/alv.plo.	/ni:dId/

6. THE PAST MARKER IN PERSIAN:

The morphological rules which apply to only a limited number of verbs in the English language, apply to the entire corpus of the Persian verbs. That is, without an exception, all the verbs in the Persian language form **Preterite** by adding a dental suffix which is pronounced /d/ after the **sonorants /r/** and **/n/,** and the vowels and is pronounced /t/ after the four **fricative** voiceless sounds (/f/, /s/, /S/, and /X/). Where there is a constraint in the formation of a consonant cluster, the final consonant in the **base** changes either to a **sonorant** or a **fricative** in order to facilitate formation of consonant cluster with the **past marker** /d/ or /t/ respectively.

Past Root Endings: /a:fri:d/ /Sikast/ /a:zord/ /da:St/ /a:zmu:d/ /faru:Xt/

Past marker /d/ and /t/ are shown here after a sonorant and a voiceless fricative consonant:

Present root	Past marker	Past root
/Xor/	/d/	/Xord/
/kuS/	/t/	/kuSt/

Two obvious differences between the past markers in English and Persian can be noted. The first difference pertains to the place of articulation: the English /d/ and /t/ are articulated at the ridge of the velum (and therefore to be called **alveolars),** whereas the Persian /d/ and /t/ are articulated at the teeth (to be called dentals.)

The other difference between the English and Persian past form is orthographic. Persian spellings, written in the Arabic script, are phonetic (that is, they agree with their pronunciations). English orthography, on the other hand, is non-phonetic, that is, the spellings do not conform to pronunciations. Consequently, although pronounced in three different ways, the past marker of the regular

verbs in English is written the same way with a /d/. It has one positive effect. This, at least, helps us see the historical relationship which is not so obvious in Persian where the two **past markers** are written as differently as they are pronounced. In English, it is recognised that the change takes place when the **stem/base** or the **imperative form** is changed to a preterit. In Persian, a similar change also takes place. The common assumption is that this change takes place while a past form is being transformed into the present form. However, as will be noticed, such a transformation would cause chaos and confusion, allowing itself to no rule or rhyme as shown below where assimilation of the final phoneme in the Past root is shown changing to **Present root. (Past form - past marker = present Root):**

Past form	**change = >**	**present root**
/a:mu:xt/	x=>z	/a: mu:z/
/a:Soft/	f=>b	/a:su:b/
/Sikast/	S=>n	/Sikan/
/guft/	f=>v>ow	/gow/
/da:St/	S=>r	/da:r/
/avast/	s=>r	/avar/
/faroxt	x=>S	/faru:S/

If this paradigm is accepted, it would be difficult to find an acceptable pattern. In English they say, they have **irregular past** forms. The application of rules in regular verbs is controlled, and the end-product is according to a pattern (i.e. it is either /d/, /t/ or /id/ due to the presence or otherwise of voicing in the final phoneme of the stem. In Persian, on the other hand, if the above paradigm is accepted, they would have to say they have **irregular present** forms.

The application of rules would be chaotic, and end-product would be unpredicatble. If this paradigm were accepted, it would be tantamount to saying that before it is dropped, the **past marker** affects the remaining part of the verb. It would also suggest that the **present root** marker changes in an unpredictable manner. All these

conclusions would be far from being logical and rational.

It is understood that in English it is the **present** form which is the **base or** the **root** of the verb, that a **present form** cannot be irregular, that the change takes place while **present** form is being transformed to a past form. If the phenomena of this change is Persian were seen from the same perspective, a regularity and a pattern would be found in the past forms of all Persian verbs.

7. FORMATION OF CONSONANT CLUSTERS WITH PAST MARKERS IN ENGLISH:

In order to illustrate this point further, we will look at the factor of **consonant clustering** to see the environments in which clusters are admissible in the two languages. Let us look at the sounds of the two languages again.

Table 10 showing sounds of English and Persian:
voiced

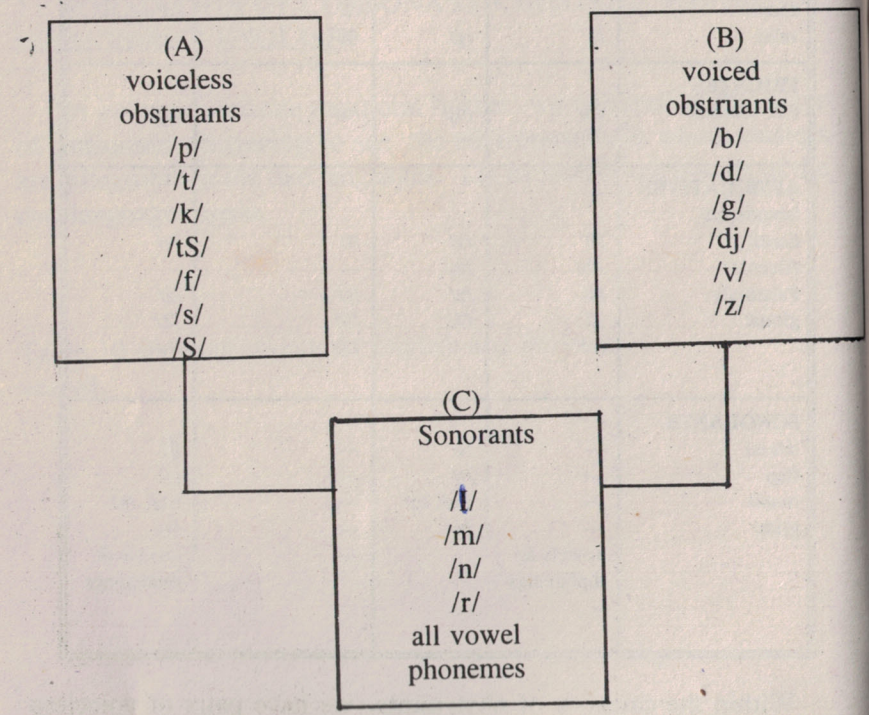
Table - 10

Sounds	English sounds		Persian sounds	
	voiceless	voiced	voiceless	voiced
OBSTRUANTS				
PLOSIVES				
Bilabial	/p/	/b/	/p/	/b/
Alveolar	/t/	/d/	-	-
dental	--	---	/t/	/d/
velar	/k	/g/	/k/	/g/
FRICATES				
Pal. alveolar	/ts/	/dj/	/ts/	/dj/
AFFRICATIVES				
labiodental	/f/	/v/	/f/	/v/
dental	/th/	/th/	---	--
Alveolar	/s/	/z/	/s/	/z/
Palato-alv.	/S/	/Z/	/S/	/Z/
glottal	/h/		/X/	/h/
SONORANTS				
lateral	---	/l/	---	/l/
flap	---	/r/	---	/r/
nasals	---	/m/, /n/	---	/m/, /n/
glide	---	/w/	---	/w/
	vowels & diphthongs		---	vowels & diphthongs
	--			

Within the category of **obstruants,** we have pairs of voiceless and voiced sounds, but in **sonorants,** we have only voiced phonemes. Theoretically, English would allow a consonant from voiced or voiceless group of **obstruants** to form a cluster within its own group, or with one from the category of sonorants. That is, a voiceless consonant from the category of **obstruants** may form a cluster with another voiceless consonant, or it may form a cluster with one of the consonants from the sonorants. This general

statement would be subject to a number of constraints and restrictions in application limiting the possibility of a voiceless consonant from the **obstruant** group forming a cluster with a voiced one from the same group.

Figure 2: showing the pattern of consonant cluster formation in English:



Theoretically speaking, the following consonant clusters are possible in English:

(a) to form a consonant cluster using two consonants from group (A).

pt	helped	ks	walks
kt	walked	sk	flask

(b) to form a consonant cluster using two consonants from group (B) together.

bd	robbed	gd	flogged
gz	flogs	vz	knives

(c) It is not possible to form a consonant cluster with one consonant from (A) and the other from (B).

*pb *sg *pg *fc *td *sc *td

(d) it is possible to make a consonant cluster using a consonant from (A) or (B) with one from group (C).

help ment flet curl

(e) A three-consonant cluster is possible only if one of the three consonants is a sonorant from group (C).
hurled /harld/ disturbed /dIstarbd/

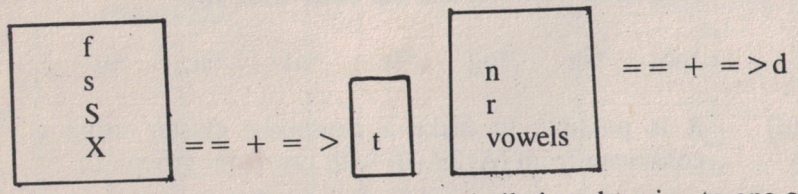
8. FORMATION OF CONSONANT CLUSTERS IN PERSIAN:

Returning to the Persian language, it will be found that it lends itself to even fewer consonant clusters than does English. This precludes the possibility of a voiceless and a voiced **obstruant** forming a cluster. The general rule that applies to the English clusters will also apply to the Persian ones with further limitations:

(a) No two voiced obstruants form a cluster in Persian;
(b) Within voiceless fricative obstruants group only /f/, /s/, /S/, and /X/ are capable of forming clusters with a /t/.
(c) Two sonorants /r/ and /n/) and vowels /i:/, /a:/, and /o/ are capable of forming consonant clusters with a /d/.

(d) All other final morphemes in the present root, outside the realm of four fricative obstruants and three sonorants will have to undergo assimilation changing to one of the two categories before accepting the past marker.

Figure 3 showing possibility of consonant-cluster formation in Persian with the past marker:



All other phonemes undergo assimilation changing to one of the members of the above two groups before accepting the **past marker.**

Table 11 showing the rules of assimilation before accepting the past marker:

	final phoneme	changes to	Present root	Past root
(1) (2)	b h	f s	a:Su:b dja:h	a:SUft dja:st
(3a) (3b)	z z	x S	a:z afra:z	a:xt afra:St
(4) (5)	s S	X X	Sana:s faru:S	Sana:Xt faru:Xt
(6a) (6b) (6c)	n. n nd	zero s s	a:ji:n Sikan band	a:ji:d Sikast bast
(7) (7b) (7c) (7d)	r a:r a:r i:r	s S or i:rof	a:ra: a:gha:r a:za:r pazi:r	a:ra:st a:gha:St a:zord pazi:roft

This answers the second part of the original question of forming past root from the base in Persian. In order to accept a cluster with the past marker /t/ or /d/, the final consonant of the base has to undergo a change.

Other voiceless consonants cannot form clusters, neither among themselves nor with voiced consonants, nor with any of the sonorants. The voiced obstruants would tend to take a vowel after them, except in rare cases where a /d/ forms a cluster with a sonorant like /n/ or /r/ as in /khord/ or /khu:nd/.

This rule applies to all the verbs in the Persian language, without an exception. All the verbs in the Persian language form **Preterite** by adding a dental suffix which is pronounced /d/ after the voiced consonant sounds and all the vowels, and is pronounced /t/ after four fricative voiceless sounds (/f/, /s/, /S/, and /X/). Where there is a constraint in forming consonant clusters, the final consonant undergoes a change in order to facilitate cluster formation.

Before accepting a **past marker,** and subsequently, an **infinitive** marker, the final consonant in the **present root** has to conform to phonemic rules, involving a process of assimilation. As it is not possible in Persian to form a **consonant** cluster of the final /b/, /h/, or /z/ with the **past marker**, one can be added only if the final consonant changes to either a sonorant or a **voiceless fricative obstruan** before taking a /d/ or a /t/, the **past marker.**

Although Persian grammarians of the ancient times stopped a little short of finding the exact reason for the choice of one form over the other because of their inaccessibility, at that point of time, to the phonetic information that is available to us today, we can see that the choice, instead of being arbitrary, strictly depended on the phonetic environment.

9. RESOLVING THE PAST-MARKER PROBLEM:

The following assumptions can be made about the past form for which there is substantial evidence available.

(a) The **present root** is the base of the Persian morphological order. All derivations originate here, at the **presen. root,** and not the other way round.

(b) the final phoneme is the **present root** (/m:adey maza:re'/) dictates the choice of /t/ or /d/ as the **past marker.**

(c) The final phoneme of the **present root** undergoes **assimilation** in order to allow the **past marker** to form a viable consonant cluster.

These primary assumptions can further be elaborated upon as under:

(i) If the final phoneme of the /madaey maza:re'/ has a voiceless fricative consonant (f, s, S, and X), the past marker will be /t/, and the infinitive component) or it will change to a sonorant (/n/ /r/ making it convenient for the past marker to form a consonant cluster.

i) /a:Su:b/, b > f + /t/ + /an/ = = >/ a:Suftan/
ii) /xor/ + /d/ + /an/ = > /xordan/
iii) The voiced phonemes can form clusters only with sonorants.

Table 12 showing the pattern of change of the final consonant of the Present Root to fricative before accepting the past marker:

Table - 12

Manner of articulation		Articiculators and points of articulation					
		bilabia	labiodental	apico-alveolar	alveo-palatal	velar	glottal
Plosive	vI	/p/	/t/	----	----	/k/	?
	vd	/b/	/d/	----	----	/g/	
Affricative	vI	---	---	----	/ts/		
	vd	---		----	/dj/		
flap	vd	---	---	/r/	----	----	
Fricatives	vI	---	/f/	/s/	/S/	/X/	/h/
	vd	---	/v/	/z/	/3/	/x/	
Nasals (vd)		/m/	---	/n/	----	---	---
laterals (vd)		---	---	/l/	---	---	----
semi-vowels (vd)		/w/	---	/r/	/y/	---	---

10. SOME GENERALIZATIONS SHOWING ASSIMILATION BEFORE TAKING PAST MAKER:

i. AS /b/ and /d/ cannot form a cluster in Persian, the final /b/ of the Present root changes to /f/ before the Past maker /t/ is applied:

Present root	Past root
/b/ changes	to /f/
/a:Su:b/	/a:Soft/

/ta:b/	/ta:ft/
/xosb/	/xoft/
/ya:b/	/ya:ft/
/fari:b/	/fari:ft/
/ku:b/	/ku:ft/
/ru:b/	/ru:ft/ > /roft/

ii. as /h/ and /d/ can not form a cluster, the final /h/ of the Present Root changes to /s/ before past marker /t/ is applied:

/jah/	/jast/	/xa:h/	/xa:st/
/ka:h/	/ka:st/	/rah/	/rast/

iii. (a) As /z/ and /d/ cannot form a cluster in Persian, the final /z/ of the Present Root is changed to /X/ (kha).

Table 13 showing change of /z/ to /X/.

/a:z/	/a:xt/	/angi:z/	/angi:xt/
/afra:z/	/afra:xt/	/afru:z/	/afru:xt/
/a:mu:z/	/a:mu:xt	/a:mi:z/	/a:mi:xt
	/	/andu:z/	/andu:xt/
/anda:z/	/anda:xt/	/bi:z/	/bi:Xt/
/a:vi:z/	/a:vi:xt/	/a:hi:z/	/a:hext/
/a:mi:z/	/a:mi:xt/	/parda:z/	/parda:xt/
/pa:z/	/poxt/	/sa:z/	/sa:xt/
/taz/	/ta:xt/		
/su:z/	/su:xt/		

(b) Rarely, this /z/ may change to /S/, (sh). For example, /afra:z// becomes /afra:St/

iv. The final /s/ or /S/ may change to /X/ (kh):

/Sana:s/ /Sana:Xt/ (kh(/faru:S/ /faru:Xt/

v. (a) The final alveolar nasal /n/ in the Present root is dropped before the past marker /d/ is applied:

/a:ji:n/	/a:ji:d/	/a:fri:n/	/a:fri:d/
/Ci:n/	/Ci:d/	/zan/	/za:d/
/kon/	/kard/		

(b) This final /n/ may change to /s/ before the past marker /t/ is applied:

/Sikan/ /Sikast/ /neSi:n/ /neSest/

(c) The final /nd/ may change to /s/ before the past marker /t/ is applied:

/band/ /bast/ /pevand/ /pevast/

vi. The final /r/ of the Present Root undergoes a variety of changes before taking the past marker:

(a) the final /ra:/ may take an extra /s/ before accepting /t/ as past marker: /a:ra/ /a:ra:st/

(b) The final /a:r/ changes to /a:S/ before accepting /t/ as past marker:

/a:gha:r/	/a:gheSt/	/amba:r/	/amba:St/
/anga:r/	/anga:St/	/panda:r/	/panda:St/
/da:r/	/da:St/	/ka:r/	/ka:St/
/goma:r/	/goma:St/	/goza:r/	/goza:st/

(c) The final /r/ may take an extra /f/ before accepting /t/ as a past marker: /pazi:r/ /pazi:roft/

(d.i.) The final /a:r/ may change to /or/ before accepting /d/ as past marker:

/a:za:r/	/a:zord/	/afSa:r/	/afSord/
/Soma:r/	/Somord/	/sepa:r/	/sepord/
/feSa:r/	/feSord/		

(d.ii.) The final /ar/ may change to /or/ before accepting /d/ as past marker: /bar/ /bord/

7. before application of the past marker is allowed, sometimes an internal vowel change takes place to facilitate pronunciation:

(a) In some verbs the final /a:/ (the front low unrounded vowel) changes to /u:/ (the back high rounded vowel) before the past marker is applied. (Table 14):

/a:zma:/	/a:zmu:d/
/a:Sa:/	/a:Su:d/
/afza:/	/afzu:d/
/a:la:/	/a:lu:d/
/anda:/	/andu:d/
/baXSa:/	/baXSu:d/
/pa:la:/	/pa:lu:d/
/pelma:/	/pelmu:d/
/farma:/	/farmu:d/
/na:ma:/	/na:mu:d/

(b) The final tense vowels change to lax vowels (/u: = > /o/;/i/ > /a/ adding a fricative, /s/ or /f/, before accepting the past marker /t/:

/a:ra:/	/a:ra:st/
/pazir:r/	/Pazi:roft/
/ju:/	/jost/
/Su:/	/Sost/
/Xi:z/	/Xa:st/

(c) An extra long vowel or a glide is added after t, r, and S before applying the past marker:

/oft/	/ofta:d/	/i:st/	/i:sta:d/
/Xar/	/Xari:d/	/ka:S/	/ka:Si:d/

(d) An extra consonant is added to semi-vowel /a:/ to facilitate application of the past marker: /a:/ /a:mad/

Table 15 showing vowel change before accepting the past marker:

Front unrounded	central unrounded	back rounded
High /i:/ /I/ \	\/ /u/	/u:/ l
el /e/	/a/ (schwa)	/o/ /o/
Low /ae/ /a/	/a:/	/c/

Summary of the above rules:

(1) b > f (2) z > S

(3) Z > X (4) s > X

(5) S > X (6) n > s, O

(7) nd > s, O (8) r > S

(9) a:r > or (10) ar > or

(11) ra: > a:s (12) a: > u:

(13) u: > o (14) i: > a:

(15) h > s (16) n > X

(17) r > X

APPENDIX

A list of Persian verbs showing change to the past root and infinitive from the present root:

Present Root	Past Root	Infinitive	Meaning
a:la:	a:lu:d	a:lu:dan	stain
uft	ufta:d	ufta:dan	fall
a:	a:mad	a:madan	come
a:mu:z	a:mu:Xt	a:mu:Xtan	teach
a:mi:z	ami:Xt	a:mi:Xtan	mix
anda:z	anda:Xt	anda:Xtan	throw
angi:z	angi:Xt	angi:xtan	stir up
a:r	a:vord	a:vordan	bring
i:st	i:sta:d	i:sta:dan	stand
bar?	ba:ri:d	ba:ri:dan	rain
baf?	ba:ft	ba:ftan	weave
ba:	bayest	ba:yestan	be necessary
barXor	barXord	barXordan	meet
bardor	bardaSt	bardaStan	pick up
bargar	bargaSt	bargaStan	return
bar	burd	burdan	carry
band	bast	bastan	bind, close

baS	bu:d	bu:dan	be
Pu:S	Pu:Si:d	pu:Si:dan	wear
purs	purSi:d	purSi:dan	ask
ju:	jUst	jUstan	seek
tava:n	tava:nest	tava:nestan	be able
Xi:z	Xa:st	a:stan	rise
barXi:z	barXast	barXastan	rise up
Xar	Xari:d	Xari:dan	buy
Xa:b	Xa:bi:d	Xa:bi:dan	sleep
Xa:h	Xa:st	Xa:stan	wish, want
Xor	Xord	Xordan	eat
deh	da:d	da:dan	give
da:r	da:St	da:Stan	have
da:n	da:nest	da:nestan	know
duz?	duzi:d	duzdi:dan	steal
du:z	du:Xt	du:Xtan	sew
bi:n	di:d?	di:dan	see
ran?	ra:nd?	ra:ndan	drive away
ras?	rasi:d	rasi:dan	arrive
ri:z	ri:Xt	ri:Xtan	pour
zan	zad	zadan	knock, strike

zi:	zi:st	zi:stan	live
sa:z	sa:Xt	sa:Xtan	make, build
sipar	sipard	sipardan	entrust
su:z	su:Xt	su:Xtan	burn
Sikan	Sikast	Sikastan	break
Sina:s	Sina:Xt	SinaXtan	recognize, know
Sinav	Sini:d	Sini:dan	hear
Sav	Sud	Sudan	? become
Firist	firista:d	firista:dan	send
furoS	FuroXt	FuroXtan	sell
fari:b	fari:ft	fari:ftan	deceive
fahm?	fahmi:d	fahmi:dan	understand
guzar?	guza:rd	guza:rdan	place, lay
ka:r	ka:St	ka:Stan	plant
koS?	koSi:d	koSi:dan	try
kun	kard	kardan	do
guza:r	guza:St	guza:Stan	place, leave
guza:r	guza:r	guza:rdan	place
guzar	guzaSt	guzaStan	pass
gard	gaSt	gaStan	spin, turn, become
gi:r	giraft	giraftan	take, seize

guv	guft	guftan	say, tell
guma:r	guma:St	guma:Stan	appoint
man?	ma:nd	ma:ndan	remain
na:m?	na:mi:d	na:mi:dan	name (verb)
niSan?	niSa:nd	niSa:ndan	seat,
naSi:n	naSest	naSastan	sit
nava:z	nava:Xt	nava:Xtan	play (instrument)
navi:s	naviSt	naviStan	write
nama:	namu:d	namu:dan	show
mi:r	murd	murdan	die
Xor	Xord	Xordan	eat
ya:b	ya:ft	ya:ftan	find, gain
rav	raft	raftan	go
zan	zad	zadan	strike, knock at
Sikan	Sikast	Sikastan	defeat, break
sa:z	sa:xt	sa:Xtan	build
Xvan	Xvand	Xvandan	read

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PROVIDING SEMANTIC INFORMATION IN THE LEARNER'S DICTIONARY

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ABSTRACT

One of the most essential functions of the dictionary is to provide semantic information to the learner. Yet it is undoubtedly the same area which is highly complex and becomes all the more problematic when the lexicographer is expected to cater to the needs of the foreign learner whose cultural and lexical competence of his L_2 is much restricted. The aim of this paper is to analyse how the various learner's dictionaries have coped with the problem of providing semantic information in their micro-structures. It also suggests that instead of being global in approach, the learner's dictionaries should address themselves to specific L_1 learners/users in view of their unique linguistic and extra-linguistic problems.

Whatever the dictionary type, the defining of vocabulary items is one of the most fundamental tasks that a dictionary is supposed to perform. In their initial stage dictionaries were merely limited to providing intra- or interlingual glosses, but it is now generally recognised that defining has become demanding task. That is why,

probably, far more attention is devoted to this aspect of dictionary design than any other. Dr. Johnson realized the problem long age;

> "That part of my work on which I expect malignity most frequently to fasten is the explanation; in which I cannot hope to be pleased since I have not always been able to satisfy myself. To interpret a language by itself is very difficult; many words cannot be explained by synonyms, because the idea signified by them has more than one appellation, not by paraphrase, because simple ideas cannot be described..... To explain requires the use of terms less abstruse than that which is to be explained and such terms cannot always be found....."

The difficulties of the lexicographer are, of course, multiplied when he has to write definitions for the learner's dictionary. Robinson (1962) distinguished between seven different methods available to the lexicographer, depends on the one hand, on the type of lexical item being defined, and on the other hand, of the prospective user and his specific needs.

The character of lexical items plays a vital role in determining what defining method is most appropriate to treating them. A method that yields a useful dictionary definition for one lexical item may not necessarily be so for another (Zgusta 1971; Moon 1987). A comprehensive typological classification of lexical items and a contrastive lexical analysis of the learner's L1 and L2 together with a focus on lexical items considered relatively problematic in the learning of L2 would provide the lexicographer with a checklist of such lexical items, enabling him to adopt his defining methods, decide on the degree of linguistic or extralinguistic information required and determine whether the definition is self-explanatory or needs to be supplemented by a verbal illustration, typical phrase, collocational pattern or stylistic information. According to Tomas Zc zky (1983) a fairly large proportion of any language's lexical items is culture-specific and it is essentially this area which needs specific

attention. The most important and generally recognised criteria for good dictionary definition, however, are considered to be accuracy, clarity, comprehensibility and succinctness.

The framing of good dictionary definitions is also conditioned by the user for whom the lexicographer is designing the dictionary. Definitions in Webster's Third New International seem to have been written with the aim of catering for the scholar who presumably needs the most elaborate information. The Concise Oxford Dictionary (1982) apparently envisages the native speaker who needs information most often for decoding purposes, whereas the LDOCE (1978) addresses itself to the EFL learner who would look up words both for comprehension as well as production. Thus the choice of the potential user, if it is an editorial decision, would play a formative role in the adoption of defining techniques to achieve the goals desired for the dictionary. We understand from various investigations (cf. Barnhart 1955; Quirk 1973; Greenbaum et al. 1984) that looking upword meaning is the most central activity even among native speakers of English. It is also found in studies undertaken in the context of FL learning (cf. Tomas zc zyk 1979; Baxter 1980; Bejoint 1981; Hartmann 1983 and Iqbal 1987) that word-meaning is the most frequent information sought in the dictionaries whether mono-or bilingual. Yet the main difference between L1 and L2 dictionary users is that the former is interested only in decoding, whereas the latter needs information on decoding as well as encoding.

The results of surveys in the EFL contexts also suggest that foreign learners are often not satisfied with the outcome of their inquires in retrieving semantic information from the monolingual dictionary or that they are provided with an explanation they find difficult to understand. As a result, they resort to bilingual dictionaries where they apparently do not have to face the problem of not understanding the words provided, though still not realizing that there are normally no exact translation equivalents of lexical items. Illusions could be more numerous with regard to polysemy

which in bilingual dictionaries is generally handled by listing one or two more translation equivalents. As a matter of fact, given an EFL learner whose knowledge of L2 is far from perfection, his evaluation of synonyms cannot be regarded as fully accurate. In most cases, he is likely to unquestioningly accept any type of definition given for synonymous word as genuine. It is also known that in strictly theoretical sense, there are no true synonyms; any translation equivalent or definition by synonyms, therefore, is of limited significance to the dictionary user. This point is further strengthened by the fact that most EFL learners do not possess the necessary reference skills. They are unaware of such linguistic subtlities as synonym discrimination. According to Jain (1981), a proper sense of equivalence in most learner's dictionaries is blurred by the fairly common but circular glossing technique of one-word synonyms: it cannot be used without misleading the learner. The use of definition by synonyms in EFL dictionaries as the only technique is hence not without pitfalls.

Current definitional practice in learner's dictionaries is worth noticing. The CELD states in its introduction that great care..... has been taken to make sure that definitions are easy to understand. The CULD in the preface says that "the aim of this dictionary is to provide comprehensive information in as simple a form as possible. This is shown in the simple worded definitions...." Moreover, on the backcover, the use of "clear and accurate definitions in simple language-------but no awkward definitions resulting from an unnaturally restricted vocabulary" is claimed to be one of its outstanding features. The OALDCE claims on its cover to have "practical definitions------ in simple English". But nowhere in these dictionaries is its spelled out how easiness, simplicity, clarity or practicality in defintion have been determined. It is the distinction of the LDOCE to have used a limited vocabulary of approximately 2000 words for definition.

Definition by means of a controlled vocabulary is, undoubtedly, a significant step forward in L2 lexicography. The main rationale

behind such a move is to facilitate the learner comprehension. The idea of a controlled vocabulary is not an innovation in the LDOCE; it was implicit in Ogdens's Basic English (1930) and used in lexicographical work by Gougenheim (1958) in his French dictionary and by West (1935) in his New Method English Dictionary of 24000 words. A controlled vocabulary has no doubt the merit of being simple and comprehensible, two aspects highly desired by the learner. Dictionary definitions couched in simple words may bring the meaning of lexical items within the verbal repertoire of the user, but sometimes definition via a controlled vocabulary becomes over-simplified, imprecise, vague and often fails to bring out all the important constituent meaning features of a lexical item which is more specific by reason of culture. Mac Farquher and Richards (1983) undertook and empirical study of learner perception aimed at comparing the intellegilibity and clarity of dictionary definitions in three dictionaries------ LDOCE, OALDCE and WNWD, which follow different definition principles. A random sample of sixty entries was chosen for comparison. The subjects were all foreign students enrolled in courses at the English Language Institute at the University of Huwai. The result was clearly in favour of controlled vocabulary; definitions from the LDOCE were judged to be 51.5% clearest, from the QALDCE 28.5% and those from the WNWD for 20% of the items. There has, however, been a mixed reaction on the part of some lexicologists and lexicographers {cf. Stein, 1979; Jain; 1981; Miciel and Noel, 1984; Jasen et al., 1987) as to the total validity of controlled vocabulary mainly due to its incompatibility with semantic adequacy. A proposal on this account has been made to increase the number of words in the defining vocabulary for the sense indicated in the dictionary definition, with a superscript when the headword happens to be polysemous (ef. Neuhauer, 1983).

A controlled vocabulary has its limitations, but there is currently no single method available to the lexicographer which allows him to deal with all the lexical items adequately. The lexicographer has to be explicit, making use of all ranges of definition types and other complementary information. This aspect of L2 lexicography needs

special attention due to the fact that the overriding interest of EFL students is to consult the dictionary for word-meaning.

Illustrative examples play an important role in L2 lexicography. The EFL learner most often needs to use the dictionary for interpretation; illustrative examples can make the point clear by describing or providing encyclopeadic information about the lexical item being defined. Showing the word in context by means of illustrative examples helps interpretation as well as encourages imitation by placing the word in an acceptable semantic environment. Example sentences help to illustrate the sense discrimination of synonyms, antonyms, hyponoyms polysemous words and the syntactic behaviour of lexical items more clearly than cryptic codes used in various dictionaries variously. Similarly, collocational and stylistic information can best be provided by means of example sentence to the learner. Yet if the learner has to really benefit from illustrative examples he must know the point highlighted through some kind of metalanguage (Iqbal 1987). Almost all the learner's dictionaries provide an appreciable coverage of illustrated example.

Another strategy which can help make up the restrictedness of definition is to present the lexical item in its collocational pattern. The coverage of collocation in the CED is far from satisfactory. The introduction does not mention anything about how collocations have been presented in the dictionary. Almost all the collocations covered are illustrated through example sentences, without making the user aware of their open vs restricted characteristics. Similarly, the CULD has no information on collocations in the introductory matter. It mainly relies on example sentences to suggest collocational pattern, to the ignorance of the user as to the type of pattern involved in the combination. The OALDCE makes use of both phrases and example sentences for this purpose. Collocational information in this sense is merged into illustrative examples. The LDOCE also uses both phrases and example sentences to convey collocational information to the user. Quite differently from others, the LODOCE explains, in its introduction the meaning of a collocation and the way it is

presented in the dictionary. In addition to this, the LDOCE clarifies collocations by explanation in the usage notes.

Lexicographically, pragmatic information relates to the complex issue of marking usage in the dictionary, with the aim of sensitising the user to the usage specificity of various lexical items of a language. Usage generally implies the way words and phrases are actually used; it also refers to the question of suitability of words and phrases with regard to the parameters such as:

1 the mode of communication in relation, for example, to written or spoken language;

2 the speaker's social role, with reference to its specificity to his interlocutor;

3 the subject-matter, with regard to its specificity to different fields of knowledge;

4 the goal of communication such as requesting, persuading etc;

5 regional variation specific to different speech communities within the same language;

6 termporal differences referring to old and contemporary etc.

All the four learner's dictionaries employ labels to indicate pragmatic information for the user. It is, however, confusing to find that there is no general consensus among the dictionaries over the coverage of lexical items or phrases considered to the restricted in this context, the range of labels used, the variety of fields covered and the actual assigning of labels to words and phrases as reflected in the following example:

stick-in-the-mud	(informal)	CELD
" " "	(inf.derog)	CULD
" " "	(infmal).	LDOCE
" " "	(colloq)	OALDCE

The CELD in the introduction (p.vii) states:

"We are aware that non-native users of English are often unsure of the appropriateness of the vocabulary they use. We have therefore given as far as we could, information on such matters as whether a word is regularly formal or informal in its use, whether it is old-fashioned or restricted to a certain field e.g. law, medicine".

This is followed by a brief explanation of the significance the labels "formal" and "informal", and as exemplification from a number of disciplines and/professions to which some words, or one of their meanings, may be restricted in use. The CELD is thus comprehensive neither in the coverage of information on usage nor elaborate in its explanation to the user.

The CULD gives a brief description of"usage" in the preface (p.xi) under the sub-title "other labels": "Often there is a label in italic type in brackets which does not refer to any aspect of grammar. Such labels tell you, for example, which field or subject a word belongs to or in what kind of situation a particular word is suitable".

Each label in the dictionary is fully explained and listed in alphabetical order:
(amer), (arch), (Brit), (derog), (dial), (euph), (facet), (fig), (formal), (list), (inf), (ironic), (legal), (liter),(loosely),

(offensive), (old), (orig),((sl) ,(tech), (vulg).

The CULD has also indicated comparison in the field of usage labels. A verb like "commence" is not simply called "formal," it is put into relation with "begin" and "start".

The OALDCE provides a comprehensive list of labels separately under "specialist English registers" and"stylistic values" on the front page, but does not explain all the labels used in the dictionary. This aspect of the OALDCE has been viewed as one of the "week points" in the otherwise superbly well-produced dictionary. Without adequate explanation in the dictionary it is hard for the learner to make proper distinction e.g. between "humorous" and "jocular", "archaic" and "old use" or "derogatory" and "pejorative". In the introduction, under the sub-title "style" (p.xxxvi) however, the dictionary gives more formal advice to the user on how to use the words correctly in the context.

"To help you there is information in any entry when the word is to be used only in a particular style or context. For example, formal words are not used in every day conversation, or in letters to friends and relations, while collocational words are not used in business letter, or in conversation with a person who you do not know well or who is your superior".

The LDOCE also lists various labels on the front page but it unnecessarily mixes the usage labels with other abbreviations. In the "guide to the dictionary" under "labels" (p.xxiv), there is a brief explanation of what each label represents. Since usage is an ever-changing phenomenon, the LDOCE includes statements such as "sometimes" "rare" or "often" which makes it distinctive from other dictionaries in this respect. In addition to this, the LDOCE has employed "usage notes" to highlight various differences of semantic as well as pragmatic nature for instant comprehension by the user.

Dictionaries and encyclopaedias are considered to be essentially separate kinds of reference works serving different purposes. A dictionary as such deals with linguistic information e.g. semantic, syntactic, pragmatic, etymological, phonological and lexical chracteristics of the word. The encyclopedia, on the other hand, is concerned with concepts and objects of the extra linguistic world. There is, however, a tendency among contemporary general-purpose dictionaries (particularly pedagogical dictionaries) to combine the features of the two to some extent. Hence they are encyclopedic in nature, though the degree of inclusion of encyclopaedic information encyclopedic in nature, though the degree of inclusion of encyclopedic information and the treatment of individual lexical items differs from one dictionary to another. A learner's dictionary may achieve this characteristic by drawing on the following features.

1 Assuming that the EFL learner might face difficulty in comprehending the full import of the culture-specific words if conveyed by linguistic definition alone, the dictionary can given encyclopedic description to complement the deficiency of definition;

2 Some of the lexical items belong to various branches of human knowledge like chemistry, history or law; when such words are marked with subject labels they imply the encyclopedic context involved;

3 The use of"illustrative examples" is also made to convey some encyclopedic information by focussing on the underlying concept;

4 Pictorial illustration performs graphically what an illustrative phrase or sentence does verbally. Since they elaborate on definitions, their prime motive is to provide encyclopedic reference and direct the user's attention to the extra-linguistic world. Graphic illustration is, of course, defined as"ostensive definition".

5 The introductory matter of the dictionary which usually contains a "preface", "introduction", "user's guide", and the "back matter" which includes a variety of informatioin related to different spheres of life is essentially encyclopedic in function.

All the four learner's dictionaries provide sufficient encylopaedic information in the dictionary as well as in the back matter. But it is a distinction of the LDOCE that is the most comprehensive and consistent in its presentation. Apart from the CULD, all the other dictionaries supplement their definitions with graphic illustrations, though the OALDCE with 318 illustrations covers this area more than in the LDOCE with 92 and the CELD with 205. The LDOCE is again superior to others in its coverage of culture specific words e.g. "yorkshire pudding" and "cornish pastie", and provideds encyclopedic description of such lexical items. It is also ahead of others in assigning "usage labels" characteristic of various fields of human knowledge, to a maximal number of words. What is more urgently required is the drawing up of a check list of culture-bound words on the basis of contrastive and error analysis to treat them in the dictionary with the most satisfactory encyclopedic orientation, depending, of course, on the nature and complexity of the word.

CONCLUSION

The in-depth analysis of the four learner's dictionaries suggests quite explicitly that these dictionaries have tried to provide maximal semantic information in their micro-structure following, of course, their respective methods and techniques. Yet the issue gets confounded when such dictionaries aim at satisfying the needs of all foreign learner's of the English language without taking into consideration their L1 specific linguistic and cultural difficulties. An ideal approach, therefore, might be the one in which monolingual

English learner's dictionaries choose to address themselves to specific L1 users and this is something which has quite conclusively emerged in various surveys conducted into the language needs and problems of various categories of learners in different contexts.

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